ISSN 0703-8763

Edmonton Area Series Report No. 34

PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME AND ANOMIC ADAPTATIONS

By

Vincent F. Sacco

Department of Sociology
Queen's University
Kingston, Ontario

The 1981 Edmonton Area Study was administered and supported by the Population Research Laboratory and the Department of Sociology at The University of Alberta. This year's study was directed by L.W. Kennedy. In close cooperation with Dr. L.W. Kennedy, Raymond Currie of the Department of Sociology, University of Manitoba, and Charlene Thacker of the Department of Sociology, University of Winnipeg conducted the 1981 Winnipeg Area Study.

October 1984

ABSTRACT

This study examines the effects of perception of rising crime rates and the fear of crime upon the expression of anomic attitudes. An existing body of theoretical and empirical literature suggests that those who are concerned about the possibility of criminal victimization will be more likely to develop a sense of detachment from the prevailing social order. The combined survey sample data from the 1981 Edmonton and Winnipeg Area studies were used to investigate this issue.

The employment of path analytic procedures revealed that although perceptions of rising crime and personal safety were significantly related to respondents' scores on Srole's anomia scale, the effects were not as strong as expected. The analysis also provided some indication that the effects of perceptions of crime upon anomia were most pronounced for those individuals who were not integrated into local communities. Additionally, there was no substantial evidence that the perception of crime measures mediated the effects upon anomia of the other social and demographic variables included in the model. The paper concludes with a consideration of the theoretical implications of these findings.

Introduction

Recent scholarly interest in public fear of crime has refocussed attention upon the relationship between crime and social integration. In contrast to earlier generations of functionalist writers, however, contemporary fear of crime researchers argue that public reactions to crime tend to undermine the stability of organized social life. In particular, it is maintained that as members of urban publics perceive the social environment as criminally threatening they develop orientations to this environment which are characteristically atomistic.

The present study provides a re-examination of the argument that perceptual reactions to crime contribute to patterns of interpersonal estrangement. More specifically, employing survey data gathered in two Canadian urban centres, it investigates the empirical interrelationships involving measures of perceptions of crime increases, fear of crime and subjective anomia.

The Theoretical Issue

As indicated, functionalist orientations to the study of public reactions to crime have stressed the positive role which such reactions play in the maintenance of social order. For Durkheim (1951), Coser (1962), Mead (1918), Lazarsfeld and Merton (1957), Erikson (1966) and others these reactions represent processes by which the communal bases of social life are reaffirmed.

A contrasting view is offered by Conklin (1975) and other contemporary writers who argue that public reactions to crime suggest a social order that is being undermined rather than reaffirmed. According to Conklin:

> Crime generates fear suspicion and distrust and thus diminishes social interaction. As a community is atomized, solidarity weakens and informal controls dissipate (1975: 131).

This view has frequently tended to predominate the contemporary study of public fear of crime and has been given expression not only by sociologists but also by politicians, journalists and others who seek justification for a variety of anti-crime initiatives.

The theoretical image of the reacting to crime process which these writers present suggests an apparent but frequently unrecognized link between perceptions of crime research and the Durkheimian and Mertonian traditions of anomie theory. Specifically, there is the hypothesis that rising rates of crime and the development of a concern for personal safety may be indicative of social or personal crises that are precipitants of anomie. For Merton, anomie:

> refers to a breakdown of social standards governing behavior and so also signifies little social cohesion. When a high degree of anomie has set in, the rules once governing conduct have lost their savor and force. Above all else, they are deprived of legitimacy. They do not comprise a social order in which men can confidently put their trust. For there is no longer a widely shared sense within the social system, large or small, of what goes and what does not go, of what is justly allowed by way of behavour and of what is justly prohibited, of what may be legitimately expected by people in the course of interaction (Merton, 1964: 226).

Later in the same essay, Merton provided a suggestion of a theoretical linkage between some types of perceptions of crime and anomie:

> (A) degree of anomie has set in among the masses of New Yorkers who throng the subways when they can no longer be confident that in the main they can take their rides in reasonable security, if not sybaritic comfort, but rather find themselves in fear that they may be violently attacked by some of their fellow passengers. A degree of anomie has set in when men and women hesitate to frequent parks, once set aside for public convenience for fear that they will be assaulted rather than refreshed in these surroundings (1964: 226-227).

Thus to the extent that perceptual reactions to crime promote the belief that "the normative order is too weak to allow one to trust other people" (Fischer, 1973: 311) they may be said to contribute to an anomic world view.

Although in Durkheimian and Mertonian usage, anomie is intended as a social structural rather than a social psychological concept, other writers (McClosky and Scharr, 1965; MacIver, 1950; Riesman, 1950) have argued that there is theoretical value to be derived from the conceptualization and measurement of subjective manifestations of anomic processes. Thus, Srole (1956) in an early and influential paper defined anomia as the degree to which individuals express a generalized and pervasive sense of self-to-others estrangement. While there is considerable debate in the literature regarding the nature of the relationships that link anomie, the property of social structures, to anomia, the psychological property, it is generally acknowledged that the individual's propensity to express the latter does not necessarily bring evidence to bear

upon the existence of the former. That anomie and anomia may vary relatively independently of each other (Merton, 1964) implies that anomia as a form of interpersonal estrangement may reflect the influence of a variety of social, psychological and experiential factors (McClosky and Scharr, 1965). Of particular interest in the present study is the extent to which anomia is related to perceptions of rising crime and the concern for personal safety.

Previous Research

Most empirical investigations of anomia have employed some version of the scale originally devised by Leo Srole in 1956. This scale includes five items intended to assess individuals' perceptions that: a) community leaders are detached from and indifferent to their needs b) the social order is essentially fickle and unpredictable c) they are retrogressing from the goals that they have already achieved d) internalized social norms have been lost or deflated e) frameworks of immediate personal relationships are no longer supportive (1956: 713).

In general, the relevant empirical research demonstrates that income, education and other indices of socio-economic status are the most consistent and powerful predictors of anomia (Angell, 1962; Barnet, 1970; Bell, 1957; Erbe, 1964; Killian and Grigg, 1962; McDill, 1961; McDill and Ridley, 1962; Meier and Bell, 1959; Mizurchi, 1960; Rhodes, 1964; Simpson and Miller, 1963). This is consistent with Merton's theoretical prediction that the stresses induced by an anomic social structure will be

most acutely experienced by the members of the lower social strata.

It has also been rather consistently shown that anomic responses are negatively related to measures of social integration and social participation. More specifically, there is evidence to suggest that high levels of political participation, membership and involvement in informal and formal organizations, length of residency and home ownership tend to be associated with lower levels of anomia (Bell, 1957; Eitzen, 1970; Erbe, 1964; McDill and Ridly, 1962; Meier and Bell, 1959; Mizurchi, 1960; Rose, 1959; Timms and Timms, 1972; Wilson, 1971).

Available data would also seem to indicate that some of the other traditional social and demographic factors lack predictive utility with respect to anomia. There is little evidence that anomia is related to, for instance, either gender or urban residence (Killian and Grigg, 1962; Mizurchi, 1964) and while some researchers have reported that age is positively related to scores on anomia scales, the effect is not a particularly strong one (Angell, 1962; Meier and Bell, 1959).

Despite some considerable variation in the way in which fear of crime has been operationalized, the empirical research suggests rather consistent patterns regarding the social distribution of fear responses. In general, women, the elderly, economic and ethnic minorities, residents of large cities and high crime neighborhoods and those who are not integrated into their local communities are more likely to express anxieties relating to the possibility of criminal victimization (Baumer,

1978; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; Dubow et al, 1979; Garofalo, 1981; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Toseland, 1982). More equivocal, however, is the research concerning the possible effects of victimization experience and exposure to crime media upon fear (Balkin, 1979; Block and Long, 1973; Cumberbatch and Beardsworth, 1976; Hindelang et al, 1978; Sacco, 1982).

The social consequences of the fear of crime have been less thoroughly documented although some such studies have been undertaken. Conklin (1975) who investigated public reactions to crime in two Massachusetts communities found that inter-relationships involving perceptions of crime, feelings of personal safety, interpersonal trust and community affect were statistically significant in a high crime rate urban but not in a low crime rate suburban community.

Hindelang et al (1978) used National Crime Survey data to investigate the hypothesis that crime-related anxieties may influence the performance of specific types of social activities such as shopping, going out for entertainment and leaving and selecting neighbourhoods. In general, the relatively small effects that could be attributed to fear of crime led these researchers to conclude that the behavioral effects of fear of crime appear more as "subtle and adjustments in behavior rather than major shifts in what may be called behavioural policies" (1978: 224).

Data from an amalgam survey conducted in Edmonton, Alberta, were employed by Hartnagel (1979) to investigate some possible effects of perceptions of increasing crime and fear of crime upon

neighborhood cohesion, social activity and community affect. It was found that the relationships existing between perceptions of increases in crime and the dependent variables were either not significant at the zero-order level or did not persist after the introduction of social and demographic controls. Moreover, fear of crime was not significantly related to either neighborhood cohesion or social activity. However, the coefficients measuring the relationships involving fear of crime in the neighborhood and in the city and affect for community were statistically significant, moderate in magnitude and in the predicted direction.

More recently, an investigation by Skogan and Maxfield (1981) of public reactions to crime in three major American urban centres revealed that perceptions of local crime problems and fear of victimization were more strongly related to the adoption of individualistic personal precautions (such as the limitation of activity) than to involvement in community action programs. In summarizing this and other studies of the social implications of public reactions to crime, Skogan concluded that "the data all seem most consistent with the view that crime is incapacitating, not a motivating force behind positive responses to the problem" (1981: 37).

While there have been no explicit attempts to examine the relationship between the perception and fear of crime and anomia, Smith et al (1978) examined a related issue. Specifically, these researchers employed data from the 1973 and 1974 N.O.R.C. surveys to investigate the relationships between two types of

victimization experiences and scores derived from Srole's anomia scale. The regression analysis revealed that neither robbery nor burglary had a significant impact upon the dependent variables. These findings were interpreted as suggesting that single incidents of victimization do not result in the types of crisis that Durkheim regarded as precipitants of anomie.

By contrast, the present study is concerned not with direct victimization but with indirect victimization operationalized in terms of an accentuated perception of the threat of criminal harm and a concern for personal safety. It is thus generally hypothesized that the subjective anticipation of victimization experience is likely to be related to feelings of anomia.

The Present Study

The data employed in the present analysis are drawn from the combined 1981 Edmonton and Winnipeg area studies (Kinzel, 1981). The two-city amalgam study used as its sampling frames computerized lists of addresses compiled for the purpose of municipal enumeration. Temporary or institutional residences were deleted from the samples.

Within each household, one eligible person was selected as the respondent for a one-hour interview. A respondent was considered eligible if the dwelling was his or her usual residence and, if he or she was 18 years of age or older.

The completed interviews were selectively and randomly verified by telephoning respondents. There was no evidence of significant disparities. The final sample sizes were 400 for

Edmonton and 336 for Winnipeg. A comparative examination of survey and census data reaffirmed the degree to which the samples were representative of the populations of the two cities.

For the purpose of the present analysis missing data were estimated using the "two-step" multiple regression technique available in the B.M.D.P. statistical software package (Dixon et al, 1981). Five cases for which the amount of missing data exceeded the default option of the program were subsequently omitted.

Variables Used in the Analysis

1. Exogenous Variables

CITY: Although there is little evidence of inter-city differences with respect to anomia once the confounding effects of social and demographic variables are controlled, there is an empirically-based expectation that perceptions of crime will vary across urban environments (Skogan and Klecka, 1977). As stated, it has been demonstrated that the more urban the place of residence, the more likely respondents are to report being concerned about their personal safety. Although Edmonton and Winnipeg are cities of roughly comparable size, it is entirely possible that differences in their "criminal environments" (Conklin, 1975) could find expression in inter-city variations in perception of crime and personal safety.[1] "City" is thus included in the analysis and treated as a dichotomous variable (0 = Edmonton; 1 = Winnipeg).

SEX: Again, although there is little evidence that anomia scores differ significantly between males and females, sex has rather consistently been shown to be the best predictor of fear of crime response. For present analytical purposes, sex is also treated as a dichotomous variable (0 = males; 1 = females).

AGE: As indicated, the research literature supports the hypothesis that age is related both to anomia and to perceptions of crime. Older respondents are more likely to express anomic attitudes and anxieties about crime. This suggests the possibility that perceptions of crime may, to some extent, mediate the effects of age upon anomia.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS: Since measures of socio-economic status have been shown to be the best predictors of anomia, as well as useful predictors of perceptions and fear of crime, such variables are of particular interest in the present analysis. Two SES indicators are employed. The first, education, is derived from responses to the item "In total, how many years of schooling do you have? This includes total of grade school, high school, vocational, technical and university?" The second measure, "total household income" is composed of 47 income categories ranging from under $5000 to over $50,000. Both are regarded as interval level measures. As in the case of age it may be hypothesized that perceptions of crime mediate some of the effect of socio-economic status upon anomia.

2. Intervening Variables

COMMUNITY INTEGRATION: As stated, the empirical data suggest that those who receive high scores on various measures of social

integration are less likely to express anomic attitudes or to be concerned about personal safety issues. In the former case it is argued that, to a considerable extent, anomia subjectively expresses lack of attachment to others. With respect to perceptions of crime, it is typically maintained that a high degree of integration -- particularly integration into the local community -- signifies a greater sense of the manageability of the risks which the environment may impose. As well, to the extent that individuals are located within the context of local community networks, they may define as more readily available social supports which mitigate against the deleterious effects of local crime conditions (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

The measure of social integration employed in the present study is intended to express the degree to which respondents are integrated into local communities. Four survey items were used in the construction of this measure. Respondents were asked about length of residency at present address (in months), tenancy status (0 = rent; 1 = own) and number of voluntary association memberships. The fourth item, "How many adults in this neighbourhood would you know by name if you met them on the street?" had seven response categories ranging from "none" to "all of them." A principal components analysis produced a strong single factor solution (Alpha = .646). The results of this analysis were used to construct scale scores.

PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME: Two perception of crime items were used in the present study. The first asked respondents, "Compared to two years ago, would you say that crime has increased, decreased or

remained the same in this neighbourhood?" (1 = decreased; 2 = remained the same; 3 = increased). Since this item attempts to elicit perceptions of the amount of local crime, it is intended as a measure of the degree of threat that the local environment is thought to pose.

The second item asked respondents, "How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood at night?". There were five response categories for this item ranging from "very safe" to "very unsafe" with a neutral mid-point. Consistent with previous usage in the research literature, this item was employed in the present study as an opera ionalization of fear of crime (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). Both items are treated as interval level measures.

3. Dependent Variable

ANOMIA: A principal components analysis of Srole's five original items revealed a clearly defined factor with significant loadings for all items (Alpha = .712). Using the results of this analysis, factor scores were calculated such that higher scores indicated greater anomia.

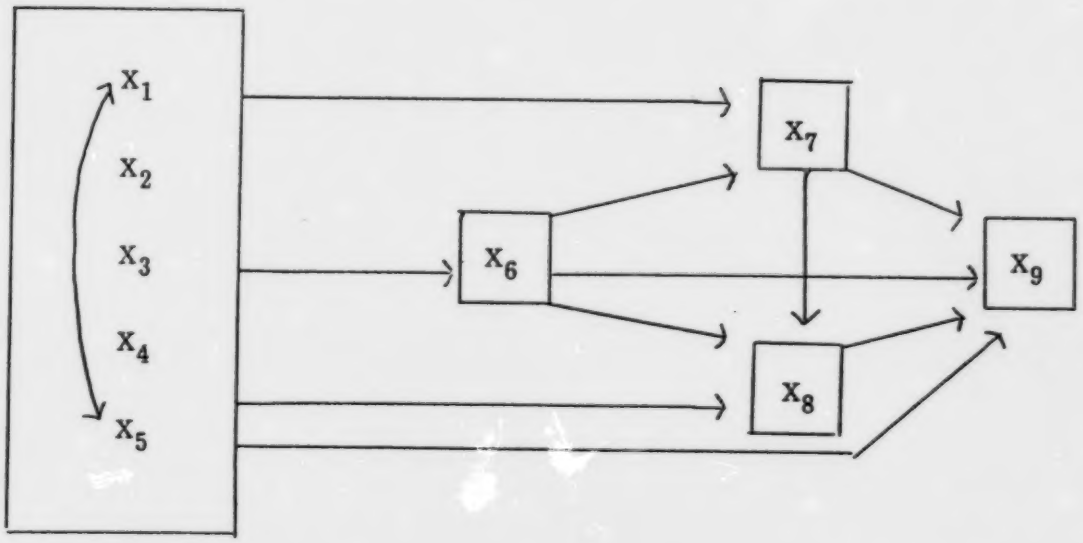
RESULTS

A model of the pattern of hypothesized effects is presented in Figure 1. Effect coefficients were calculated through the generation of a series of reduced form regression equations. The results of the regression analysis are provided in Table 1.

Table 2 presents the decomposition of path effects according to procedures described by Alwin and Hauser (1975). Each

Figure 1

Model of Path Effects



X_1 = City
X_2 = Sex
X_3 = Age
X_4 = Education
X_5 = Income
X_6 = Community Integration
X_7 = Perception of Crime Rate
X_8 = Fear of Crime
X_9 = Anomia

TABLE 1

Estimated Coefficients of Regression Equations: Intervening and Dependent Variables

Predetermined Variable	Dependent Variable (1) Integration	(2) Crime Rate	(3) Crime Rate	(4) Fear	(5) Fear	(6) Fear	(7) Anomia	(8) Anomia	(9) Anomia	(10) Anomia
City	.101***	-.111**	-.108**	-.073*	-.058	-.031	-.005	.007	.019	.022
Sex	.086**	.115**	.118**	.419***	.432***	.403***	-.034	-.024	-.037	-.076
Age	.588***	.022	.039	.133***	.222***	.212***	-.129***	-.059	-.063	-.084
Education	.091**	-.030	-.027	.004	.018	.025	-.353***	-.342***	-.339***	-.341***
Income	.333***	.040	.049	-.191***	-.141***	-.153***	-.131***	-.092*	-.097*	-.082*
Integration			-.029		-.151***	-.144***		-.120**	-.116**	-.102*
Crime Rate						.243***			.110**	.086*
Fear										.098*
R^2	.369***		.026**			.341***				.176***

* p .05
** p .01
*** p .001

N = 731

successive variable in the model is treated as a causal product of the variables which precede it. By decomposing effects, it is possible to determine the degree to which each of the dependent variables is related either directly or indirectly to variables which are hypothesized to be causally prior to it.

The exogenous social and demographic variables explain 37% of the variation in the community integration measure. The Beta values suggest that residents of Winnipeg, females, older respondents and those who have more education and greater household incomes are better integrated into their local communities.

Only two of the predetermined variables, city and sex are significantly related to perceptions of the local crime rate, and the total amount of explained variation is low (R^2 = .026). Thus, although women and residents of Edmonton are more likely to perceive local crime as increasing, the effects are not particularly strong and neither effect is significantly mediated by the community integration measure.

With respect to the fear of crime measure, the empirical pattern is consistent with earlier research. Sex exerts the strongest effect such that females are more likely than males to express concern about their personal safety. It is also the case that fear is positively associated with age and perceptions of increases in local crime and negatively associated with income and degree of integration into the local community. Additionally, residents of Edmonton appear to be somewhat more afraid than residents of Winnipeg. In general the effects of

Table 2

Decomposition of Path Effects:
Intervening and Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	Predetermined Variable	Total Effect	Indirect Effect Via			Direct Effect
			Integration	Crime Rate	Fear	
Integration	City	.101	—	—	—	.101
	Sex	.086	—	—	—	.086
	Age	.588	—	—	—	.588
	Education	.091	—	—	—	.091
	Income	.333	—	—	—	.333
Crime Level	City	-.111	-.003	—	—	-.108
	Sex	.115	-.003	—	—	.118
	Age	.022	-.017	—	—	.039
	Education	-.030	-.003	—	—	-.027
	Income	.040	-.009	—	—	.049
	Integration	-.029	—	—	—	-.029
Fear	City	-.073	-.015	-.027	—	-.031
	Sex	.419	-.013	.029	—	.403
	Age	.133	-.089	.010	—	.212
	Education	.004	-.014	-.007	—	.025
	Income	-.191	-.050	.012	—	-.153
	Integration	-.151	—	-.007	—	-.144
	Crime Rate	.243	—	—	—	.243
Anomia	City	-.005	-.002	-.012	-.003	.022
	Sex	-.034	-.010	.013	.039	-.076
	Age	-.129	-.070	.004	.021	-.084
	Education	-.353	-.011	-.003	.002	-.341
	Income	-.131	-.038	.005	-.015	-.082
	Integration	-.120	—	-.004	-.014	-.102
	Crime Rate	.110	—	—	.024	.086
	Fear Rate	.098	—	—	—	.098

N = 731

these variables are direct rather than indirect although there is some evidence that the total effect of age upon fear is being surpressed by its indirect effect through integration.

The variables included in the model account for a total of 18% of the variation in anomia scores. Income, education and community integration are related to the dependent variable in the hypothesized direction. The effect of age, however, is opposite that which was originally predicted since it is negatively rather than positively related to scores on the anomia scale. Both of the perception of crime measures are related to anomia although the effects are not particularly strong. Moreover, neither the perception of local crime rates nor the fear of crime mediates the effects of other variables in the model upon anomia.

The very modest effects of perceptions of crime upon anomia suggested the need for further analysis in order to determine the social conditions under which these effects are either exaggerated or further minimized. Thus, scores on the community integration measure were trichotomized and separate regression analyses which included all the remaining predetermined variables were generated. Table 3 presents the relevant data from these analyses. These findings indicate that the perception that the local crime rate is increasing and the concern for personal safety are likely to have greater effects upon anomia when individuals are not integrated into their local communities and, that when the level of integration is high, such effects are non-existent. These findings are, however, more suggestive than

Table 3

Regression Coefficients: Anomia, Perceptions of Crime Rate Increase and Fear of Crime by Levels of Integration

Level of Integration	Crime Rate		Fear of Crime		N
	Beta	F	Beta	F	
Low	.161	6.863**	.162	4.409*	243
Moderate	.175	8.340**	.127	3.073	243
High	.019	.094	-.001	.000	245

* p .05

** p .01

definitive. An attempt to assess the extent to which interaction terms involving these perception of crime measures and community integration contributed to the explained variation in anomia revealed that neither term was statistically significant.

DISCUSSION

The research reported here provides some modest support for the claim that the ways in which people perceive and react to crime impacts upon their views of the social order and their relationships to others within the context of that order. While the data suggest quite clearly that perceptions of rising crime and fear of crime are related to anomic attitudes, the effects are not strong. Further, although the evidence is far from conclusive, it appears that when individuals are adequately integrated into their local communities then even these slight effects disappear.

Interpretations of the substantive meanings of these data must, however, be caustiously made. In this regard, it should be noted that the validity of the indicators of perceptions of crime and anomia which are employed in this study has been questioned by some researchers (Dubow et al, 1979; Teevan, 1975). Moreover, there exists the possibility that the cities in which the research was conducted are atypical in some way that is relevant to the issue under investigation. As indicated, both cities are of only moderate size and in neither case is the crime rate as high as in many comparably-sized American cities in which similar research efforts have been undertaken (Sacco, Forthcoming).

Yet, to the extent that these findings are not artifacts of either measurement or sampling procedures, there are important theoretical implications. As discussed, fear of crime research has largely been concerned with the attempt to determine whether public reactions to crime bring people together as Durkheim suggested or drive them apart as Conklin and others later argued. While data discussed above indicate that perceptions of crime are rather weak predictors of anomia, they are more supportive of the latter rather than the former position. These findings are thus consistent with other research which indicates that crime-related anxieties suggest minor rather than major individual and interpersonal adaptations (Hindelang et al, 1978).

On a potentially more pragmatic level, these data may be interpreted as indicating that many crime control policies which seek justification in the deleterious effects which public reaction to crime have upon the quality of life may reflect more ideological than empirical substance.

NOTES

1. According to the 1981 census, the Census Metropolitan Area populations of Edmonton and Winnipeg were 657,057 and 584,842 respectively (Statistics Canada, 1982)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alwin, D. and R. Hauser
1975 "The Decomposition of Effects in Path Analysis." American Sociological Review 40(1): 37-47.

Angell,Robert C.
1962 "Preferences for Moral Norms in Three Problem Areas." American Journal of Sociology 67 (May): 650-660.

Balkin, S.
1979 "Victimization Rates, Safety and Fear of Crime." Social Problems 26(3): 343-358.

Barnett, L. D.
1970 "Achievement Values and Anomie Among Women in a Low-Income Housing Project." Social Forces 49(1): 127-134.

Baumer, T. L.
1978 "Research on Fear of Crime in the United States." Victimology 3(3-4): 254-264.

Bell, W.
1957 "Anomie, Social Isolation and Class Structure." Sociometry (June): 105-116.

Block, M. K. and G. J. Long
1973 "The Probability of Victimization and Crime Levels: An Econometrics Approach." Criminology 2(1): 87-93.

Clemente, F. and M. Kleiman
1977 "Fear of Crime in the United States: A Multivariate Analysis." Social Forces 52(2): 519-531.

Clinard, M. B.
1964 Anomie and Deviant Behavior. New York: The Free Press.

Conklin, J.
1975 The Impact of Crime. New York: The MacMillan Co.

Coser, L. A.
1962 "Some Functions of Deviant Behavior and Normative Flexibility." American Journal of Sociology 69 (September): 172-181.

Cumberbatch, G. and A. Beardsworth.
1976 "Criminals, Victims and Mass Communications" in E. C. Viano (Ed.) Victims and Society. Washington, D.C.: Visage Press: 72-90.

Dixon, W. J., M. B. Brown, L. Engelman, J. W. Frane, M. A. Hill, R. I. Jennrich and J. D. Toporek.
1981 B M D P Statistical Software. Berkley: University of California Press.

Dubow, F., E. McCabe and G. Kaplan.
1979 Reactions to Crime: A Critical Review of the Literature. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Justice.

Durkheim, E.
1951 Suicide. New York: The Free Press.

Eitzen, D. S.
1970 "A Study of Voluntary Association Membership Among Middle-Class Women." Rural Sociology 35(1): 84-91.

Erbe, W.
1964 "Social Involvement and Political Activity: A Replication and Elaboration." American Sociological Review 29 (April): 1998-215.

Erikson, K. T.
1966 Wayward Puritons: A Study in the Sociology of Deviance. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Fischer, C. S.
1973 "On Urban Alienation and Anomie: Powerlessness and Social Isolation." American Sociological Review 38 (June): 311-326.

Garofalo, J.
1981 "The Fear of Crime: Causes and Consequences." Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology 72(2): 839-857.

Hartnagel, T.
1979 "The Perception and Fear of Crime: Implications for Neighborhood Cohesion, Social Activity and Community Affect." Social Forces 58(1): 176-193.

Hindelang, M. J., M. R. Gottfredson and J. Garofalo.
1978 Victims of Personal Crime: An Empirical Foundation for a Theory of Personal Victimization. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger Publishing Co.

Killian, L. M. and M. Grigg.
1962 "Urbanism, Race, and Anomia." American Journal of Sociology 67 (May): 661-665.

Kinzel, C.
1981 Edmonton Area Series Report No. 20: Selected Findings from the 1981 Edmonton Area Study. Edmonton, Alberta: Population Research Laboratory, University of Edmonton.

Lazarsfeld, P. F. and R. K. Merton.
1957 "Mass Communication, Popular Taste and Organized Social Action" in B. Rosenberg and D. M. White (Eds.) Mass Culture: The Popular Arts in Americca. New York: The Free Press: 457-473.

McClosky, H. and J. H. Scharr.
1965 "Psychological Dimensions of Anomy." American Sociological Review 30(1): 14-40.

McDill, E. L.
1961 "Anomie, Authoritarianism, Prejudice and Socio-Economic Status: An Attempt at Clarification." Social Forces 39 (March): 239-245.

McDill, E. L. and J. Ridley.
1962 "Status, Anomia, Political Alienation, and Political Participation." American Journal of Sociology 68 (September): 205-213.

MacIver, R. M.
1950 The Ramparts We Guard. New York: The MacMillan Co.

Mead, G. H.
1918 "The Psychology of Punitive Justice." American Journal of Sociology 23 (April): 241-254.

Meier, D. L. and W. Bell.
1959 "Anomia and Differential Success to the Achievement of Life Goals." American Sociological Review 24 (April): 189-202.

Merton, R. K.
1938 "Social Structure and Anomie." American Sociological Review 3 (October): 672-682.

1964 "Anomie, Anomia and Social Interaction" in M. B. Clinard (Ed.) Anomie and Deviant Behavior. New York: The Free Press.

Mizurchi, E. H.
1960 "Social Structure and Anomia in a Small City." American Sociological Review 25: 645-54.

Rhodes, L.
1964 "Anomia, Aspiration, and Status." Social Forces 42 (May): 434-440.

Riesman, D.
1950 The Lonely Crowd. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Rose, A. M.
1959 "Attitudinal Correlates of Social Participation." Social Forces 37 (March): 202-206.

Sacco, V. F.
1982 "The Effect of Mass Media on Perceptions of Crime." Pacific Sociological Review 4 (October): 475-493.

(forthcoming) "City Size and Perceptions of Crime: Some Canadian Data." Canadian Journal of Sociology.

Simpson, R. L. and H. M. Miller.
1963 "Social Status and Anomia." Social Problems 10: 256-64.

Skogan, W. G. and W. R. Klecka.
1977 The Fear of Crime. Washington, D.C.: The American Political Science Association.

Skogan, W.
1981 "On Attitudes and Behavior" in D. A.Lewis (Ed.) Reactions to Crime. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications: 19-45.

Skogan, W. and M. Maxfield.
1981 Coping with Crime: Individual and Neighborhood Reactions. Beverly Hills: Sage Publishing Co.

Smith, D. L.; Durant, R.; and T. J. Carter.
1976 "Social Integration, Victimization and Anomia." Criminology 16(3): 395-402.

Srole, L.
1956 "Social Integration and Certain Corollaries: An Exploratory Study." American Sociological Review 21 (Dec.): 709-716.

Statistics Canada
1982 1981 Census of Canada: Population. Ottawa: Ministry of Supply and Services.

Teevan, J. J.
1975 "On Measuring Anomia: Suggested Modifications of the Srole Scale." Pacific Sociological Review 18(2): 159-170.

Timms, D. W. G. and E. A. Timms.
1972 "Anomia and Social Participation among Suburban Women: An Exploratory Study in an Australian Suburb." Pacific Sociological Review 15(1): 123-142.

Toseland, R. W.
1982 "Fear of Crime: Who Is Most Vulnerable?" Journal of Criminal Justice 10: 199-209.

Wilson, R. A.
1971 "Anomia and Militancy among Urban Negroes: A Study of Neighborhood and Individual Effects." Sociological Quarterly 12(3): 369-386.

EDMONTON AREA SERIES

NO.

19. Determinants of Reported Seatbelt Use: Traditional Masculinity, Age, Marital Status, and Alcohol Consumption
W. Andrew Harrell. April 1981.

20. Selected Findings from the 1981 Edmonton Area Study
Clifford Kinzel. August 1981.

21. Why Wives Work: The Relative Effects of Situational and Attitudinal Factors
Graham S. Lowe and Harvey Krahn. October 1981.

22. Selected Findings From the 1981 Winnipeg Area Study
Raymond Currie and Charlene Thacker. April 1982.

23. Ethnic Identification: Variations in Regional and National Preferences
Leo Driedger, Charrlene Thacker, and Raymond Currie. July 1982.

24. Community Influences on Attitudes Towards Unions
Harvey Krahn and Graham S. Lowe. August 1982.

25. 1982 Edmonton Area Study Summary Report
Cliff Kinzel. September 1982.

26. Deterring Physician Utilization: Medical Care User Fees in Canada.
Herbert C. Northcott and Earle L. Snider. May, 1983.

27. Public Attitudes Towards Unions: Some Canadian Evidence.
Harvey Krahn and Graham S. Lowe. May 1983.

28. Rural-Urban Origins and Fear of Crime: The Case for 'Rural Baggage'
Leslie W. Kennedy and Harvey Krahn. July 1983.

29. 1983 Edmonton Area Study Sampling Report
Clifford Kinzel. July 1983.

30. "Age-Related Expectations Concerning the Effect of Presence of Children on the Subjective Structure of Life Satisfaction"
Charlene Thacker, Raymond Currie and Leo Driedger. December 1983.

31. The Social-Psychological Impact of Unemployment in Edmonton
Harvey Krahn, Graham S. Lowe and Julian Tanner. March 1984.

32. Ethnicity in Edmonton: A Statistical Portrait.
G. Won Lee. April 1984

33. Edmonton Area Study Sampling Report 1984
Clifford Kinzel. July 1984.

* Out of Print